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Texts: A student enrolled in a course for which it is necessary to issue a complete text at the outset will be required to make a deposit in advance covering the cost of the text. This deposit is returnable to him upon his completion of the course. In no event is a text so issued returnable to the Knights of Columbus, and in no case will a deposit be returned unless the student completes the course. No deposit will be required for text material issued in installments.

Equipment: A student in a course for which special technical equipment is required will be expected to furnish it himself. The educational bureau will, upon request, arrange to supply such equipment at the lowest possible price. A student desiring to take advantage of this opportunity will be expected to forward in advance an amount covering the cost of the equipment needed.

Time limit.—The maximum time allowance for the completion of any course will be one year. Most of the courses ought to be completed in a shorter period, and students are therefore urged to pursue their studies with regularity and with reasonable dispatch. If an enrolled student fails to submit lesson reports for a period of two months and does not reply to letters of inquiry from the educational bureau, he will be dropped from membership.

On December 31, 1922, the total number of students actually enrolled in our correspondence courses was 10,340. These students come from every State in the Union, and from the farm as well as from the small town and large city.

CONCLUSION.

From a reading of this report, it will be clear that the Knights of Columbus has for the past four years been conducting an educational system for former service men which is unique. The funds for the maintenance of these schools, as has been indicated before, formed the residue of the war fund.

Over 200,000 young men have been enrolled and have taken systematic instruction in some course in our evening schools; and 403 young men have taken advantage of our scholarship courses in representative American colleges and universities; and to date over 10,000 young men have enrolled and are taking instruction in our correspondence school. The order has felt all along that it is making a wise and judicious use of the money left in its hands at the close of the war, and it has received abundant testimonials from the American public at large that this plan has received indorsement and approval.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR BUREAU OF EDUCATION

JUN 23 1

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN CIVIC EDUCATION

Ву

EDGAR DAWSON

DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY AND POLITICAL SCIENCE HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK, N. Y.

[Advance sheets from the Biennial Survey of Education in the United States, 1920–1922]



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THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN CIVIC EDUCATION.

By Edgar Dawson,

Department of History and Political Science, Hunter College, New York, N. Y.

Contents.—Introduction—The Pennsylvania program—Combination courses—Civics and the teaching of government—History in the schools—The civic virtues—The outlook for the social studies.

INTRODUCTION.

Twenty-five years ago "history and civics" was the term generally applied to the efforts of the schools to explain man in society. The amount of civics in the combination is indicated by the fact that the committee of seven of the American Historical Association, reporting in 1898 on the study of history in the schools, recommended that civil government be taught only in the course in American history in grade 12, the last year of the high school.

During the quarter-century since that date there has been a growing tendency to set up separate courses in the various subjects which have been developed in the universities. The advocates of these subjects have felt it to be their duty to urge that the disciplines for which they stood be given recognition in the curricula at least of the high schools if not further down in the system. As time went on separate courses were offered in civics, economics, sociology, and various combinations of these subjects.

As a reaction against this tendency, not only in the field now under consideration but in others as well, the educators who have been responsible for the organization of the curriculum have moved in the direction of grouping the work of the high school, under some such captions as the following: English, foreign language, mathematics, science, practical arts, and social studies. The term "social studies" has come into use during the past decade to designate the contributions made to school teaching by the fields of history, government, economics, sociology, and geography.

In an effort to express the unifying principle of the group called "social studies," a commission of scholars representing all of the special subjects involved have just issued the following statement:

The organization of the social studies in the schools should be determined by the purpose for which those studies are introduced. Their purpose is to enable our youth to realize what it means to live in society, to appreciate how people have lived and do live together, and to understand the conditions essential to living together well, to the end that our youth may develop such abilities, inclinations, and ideals, as may qualify them to take an intelligent and effective part in an evolving society.

It is not practicable, with the statistical information now at hand, to give a definite and detailed account of the present condition of the social studies in the schools. It is possible, however, to point out the main currents of opinion and to illustrate the directions in which these currents are running.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century three committees of the American Historical Association—the committees of seven, of five, and of eight—made careful studies of the then educational situation and recommended courses of study covering both elementary and secondary grades. These reports still exert considerable influence in a large majority of the schools of the country. Most of the textbooks in history have been written and the college entrance examinations in history and civics have been set with a view to the courses recommended by them.

Later came the movement for the junior high school, which promised to change the character of the work that should be done in grade 9. With this movement came the community civics idea, and the growing demand that more civics, economics, geography, and sociology be offered. To meet these new conditions, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association appointed a committee on social studies in secondary education. This committee, reporting in 1916 through Bulletin 28 of the Bureau of Education, offered a course of study for grades 7 to 12, inclusive. The report does not offer as definitely finished courses as did the committees of the American Historical Association; its authors chose rather to suggest and illustrate the principles on which new courses should be built up. The report was, in fact, a preliminary one published to secure discussion.

These two sets of recommendations are competing now, in friendly rivalry, for recognition by curriculum makers and textbook writers. It may be that a movement is gradually developing from the separate courses in history to a composite course in the social studies somewhat in line with the recommendations of the report of the committee on social studies. Two events have recently occurred which will illustrate the situation concretely. One is the publication of a 12-year course in the social studies for the State of Pennsylvania. The other is a set of recommendations made to the College Entrance Examination Board on the examinations to be set in history and civics. The description of the first is taken from the December, 1922, issue of The Historical Outlook. It was prepared by Dr. J. Lynn Barnard, of the State department of public instruction, and an active member of the committee on social studies in secondary education.

THE PENNSYLVANIA PROGRAM.

I. SOME FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLES.

This 12-year program has as its aim the training of the pupils in practical good citizenship, rather than the mere accumulation of facts for possible future use. It would define citizenship as participation in community life; and by community is meant any group, be it large or small, be it social, industrial, religious, fraternal, educational, or political.

It recognizes the fact that citizenship is a life process, a life experience, and that all are citizens. It believes that training in citizenship, in cooperative group life, must be like the training in English, continuous and cumulative throughout the 12 years of school life. From this standpoint the history and social science of the high school are not simply specialized studies, to be taken only as electives; they are a vital part of the making of intelligent, qualified citizens—the only justification of the tax-supported public-school system.

This program insists that history and social science are of coordinate rank and importance; the one giving us a perspective as to how mankind has slowly and painfully learned to lead the group life; the other giving us a sort of cross-section view of how man is now leading the group life, through the various organizations and activities that together constitute present-day civilization.

Further, there is distinct recognition of the various psychological stages through which our young citizens are passing, with corresponding adaptation of both content and method.

And finally, the impossibility of securing satisfactory results through the usual reciting-to-the-teacher method is accepted as beyond question. While the teaching process must be varied, the main dependence for success must be placed on the problem-project method, and on the constant breaking up of the class into smaller groups for the preparation of assigned work. The uncompromising nailed-to-the-floor desks must give way to comfortable chairs properly equipped for student use, supplemented in junior and senior high school by small tables around which the small groups can gather. In short, the classroom for social studies must become a laboratory, with book-laboratory equipment and resources. This change is fundamental and not a mere device as some would have us believe. It is an integral part of the school's training in cooperative democracy.

II. A TWELVE-YEAR PROGRAM.

The schedule proposed for the State course is as follows:

- A. Elementary school.
 - 1. History.
 - (a) Grades 1-3.

Part I. Anniversary days.

Part II. Indians, Esquimaux, cliff dwellers, early man— Tree dwellers, cave dwellers, sea people, pastoral people.

- (b) Grades 4 and 5—Stories of American history.
- (c) Grade 6—European background.
- 2. Civics:
 - (a) Grades 1-6-Civic virtues (morals and manners).
 - (b) Grades 3-6—Community cooperation.
 - (c) Grade 6-Vocational cooperation.

- B, Junior high school,
 - 1. History:
 - (a) Grade 7—United States history.
 - 2. Social science:
 - (a) Grade S-Community civies.
 - (b) Grade 9-Vocational-Economic civies.
- C. Senior high school.
 - 1 History:
 - (a) Grade 10—European history.
 - (b) Grade 11—American history,
 - 2. Social science:
 - (a) Grade 12—Problems of democracy,

History.—In the history of the first two grades the emphasis is placed on the Indian, both because he lends himself so easily to expression work and because he forms a sort of half-way approach to early man, taken up in the third grade.

The third and fourth grades are planned to contrast primitive man under primitive conditions with civilized man under primitive conditions. In the one the progress is slow and painful, as man learns to lead the group life. In the other the progress is rapid and comparatively pleasureful. The difference spells civilization—community cooperation—the group life. Grade 5 is a continuation of grade 4.

Grade 6 has three purposes: To fill in the break between grades 3 and 4; to orient the young citizen; to form a background for the work of grade 7.

American history is covered three times, but in different fashion each time: Grades 4 and 5, in story form; grade 7, consecutive, but dealing only with the simpler aspects of our country's history; grade 11, topical-chronological, dealing with the maturer phases and problems of American history.

European history is covered twice: In the sixth grade, in story form; in the 10th grade, as a world survey, with steadily increasing emphasis as recent times are approached.

Throughout all the history study of the junior and senior high school constant use is made, first, of the "approach" to each topic, which ties the topic to the live interest of the pupil; second, of comparisons and interrelationships; third, of committee work in the solving of the various problems presented, care being taken to touch only the high spots.

Truncated history—whether the part reserved for study is the so-called "ancient" or the so-called "modern" history—is not a part of the Pennsylvania program of citizenship training. To be effective, the story of human progress—of how man has learned to cooperate with his fellowman—must begin where the story itself begins and end where it ends. With the problem method and committee reports, this becomes feasible; with the formal recitation and the inclusion of petty detail it is next to impossible.

The "civic virtues" of the elementary civics are so planned as to aid in the formation of right social habits during the impressionable early years. The value of habit as a constraining influence with young citizens and with older ones is carefully kept in mind.

The "community-cooperation" of the intermediate grades is intended to show the service rendered by the people around us; how dependent we are on that service; how interdependent we all are, due to our highly specialized vocational life; how this interdependence is made possible only through cooperation; and finally, how cooperative good citizenship necessitates the exemplification by each citizen of the civic virtues already stressed.

"Community civics" discloses to the young adolescent how the elements of civic welfare are secured through community organization; that is, through organized community cooperation. Having reached the organization (the "gang spirit") stage the pupils are ready to become interested not only in activity, but also in the organization back of the activity. However, care is taken to follow the order of interest of the pupil; namely, from activity to organization and then to legal powers. The end of civic instruction being civic activity, the young citizens of the class are helped to discover how they themselves may cooperate in some organized fashion, for example: Health Crusaders; Safety Patrol; Junior Civic League; Junior Red Cross.

The vocational-economic civics of the ninth year has a twofold aim. The vocational civics discusses the nature of occupations, the qualities and training necessary for advancement, the social service to be rendered, and the business ethics involved. The economic civics is a sort of elementary economics, or business civics, with a more general discussion of how wealth is produced, consumed, and exchanged.

Where time is to be found for European history in the second half of the ninth year, either of these semester courses may be taken without the other.

The course in problems of democracy is based on the proposition that young people face problems not sciences, but that they must go to the social sciences for explanations and possible solutions of these problems. It is also based on the notion that there are certain fundamental concepts (described in the syllabus) with which every intelligent adult citizen must be acquainted, and that these concepts should be taught not directly as topics in themselves, but indirectly along with the problems under discussion.

This culminating study in the social science program is primarily intended to train our upper high-school students in how to investigate, to reason, to compare, to judge. It is expected to train in power and initiative. As a byproduct, it lays a foundation in the social sciences both for those who go to college and for those whose academic education ends with the high school. The stand is taken that the public secondary school—the "people's college"—has no right, from a social standpoint, to send young men and women out into the world lacking specific training in the problems of American democracy—the problems whose solution will soon be in their hands. Longer to side-step this all-important function of the high school is to "reap the whirlwind."

REPORT TO THE COLLEGE ENTRANCE EXAMINATION BOARD.

In November, 1922, the College Entrance Examination Board received a report from a commission which the board had directed to prepare a revision of the definition of history and civics requirements. This report recommends that but four examination papers be set by the board in the social studies, as follows: History A—Ancient history; History B—European history; History C—English history; History D—American history (with or without civil government).

Instead of having three separate papers in American history and civil government, the commission recommends a single paper provided with a group of questions from which the candidates who are offering civil government would choose in place of from one of the history groups on the paper.

The commission was unanimous in its opinion that the separate examination paper in civil government, giving one-half a point of credit for college entrance, should be omitted. It was not alone the fact that a very few students present

this subject for entrance that led the commission to its decision, but also the conviction that it was not wise to encourage the study of civies in the high schools apart from the history instruction. Setting a separate paper in civies, the commission felt, would tend to the slighting of American history, and perhaps to the encouragement of an undue emphasis on the formal side of government. "Civics" has come to mean two very different things of late: On the one hand, it is considered as the study of the structure and operation of the government, local, State, or National; and, on the other hand, it is made an exercise in the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. It is the former of these definitions which the examination papers in civics recognize. whereas our textbooks (generally for grades far lower than the fourth year of high school) are Increasingly emphasizing the "community" aspect of civics. The time may come when qualified instructors and adequate textbooks shall furnish high-school students with a course in civics worthy to be made the subject of examination for entrance into college. But until there is more progress made toward that end than at present it seems unwise to set a separate paper in civics.

While this report of the commission on college entrance requirements has been severely attacked by those who call it reactionary, this much at least can be said in its defense. Under the still very strong influence of the reports of the committee of seven and the committee of five of the American Historical Association, to which the report harks back (more closely to the former which was made in 1898), a great majority of the schools organized mainly to prepare for college give the courses for which the commission proposes examinations; and a large number of public high schools, even in the Middle West and West, still work under this program. It is true that the college board carries some burden of responsibility because of the influence it can wield, but its officers would probably say that its duty is to examine in the work offered rather than to determine what work shall be done.

There are no satisfactory statistics available for the whole country in all of the social studies, but while Mr. H. H. Moore's investigation through two questionnaires, two years apart, shows a rapid increase in the amount of economics, sociology, and the newer type of civics taught, it is pretty clear that the course called American history and civics (but containing very little civics) is still the most popular course. A good second runs ancient history, with mediaeval and modern Europe a poor third, and English history far in the rear.

THE SECOND COMMITTEE OF EIGHT.

It may be useful to present here for comparison with the Pennsylvania program another 12-year course of study. This course is important for two reasons. First, it runs so nearly parallel with the recommendations of the committee on social studies of the National Education Association that joint meetings of the bodies making the two reports found little to differ about; and second, it was

prepared by a committee of the American Historical Association and shows the progress in that body under the influence of changing conditions. The summary of the committee's recommendations, given below, was contributed by its chairman to the June, 1919, number of The Historical Outlook. It seems more useful to offer this definite outline than to summarize the report of the committee on social studies, for the reason that, since the report is a body of tentative and alternative suggestions, a brief abstract is almost certain to misrepresent the intentions of its makers. The summary of the recommendations of the second committee of eight follows:

THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL—GRADES 1-6.

This course begins in the community and ends in the community and draws at every stage upon the pupil's experience in the community. It embraces two units or cycles.

CYCLE I, THE MAKING OF THE COMMUNITY.

Grade 2.—The making of the community. From a simple study of changes now visibly in progress the pupil is led back to the days of Indian occupation. He learns what Indians are like, how they lived, and some of the stories which they told about themselves; how the white men came, how they lived in pioneer days, and some of the great changes since. The story at no point leaves the community.

CYCLE II. THE MAKING OF THE UNITED STATES.

A few facts of primary significance in the development of the United States are selected and so arranged as to form a simple but connected story. At the end provision is made for a study of how we are governed today. This work is designed to begin in the third grade and to continue through the sixth grade, as follows:

Grade 3.—How Europeans found our Continent and what they did with it. Some fundamental problems of discovery, exploration, and settlement are here illustrated.

Grade 4.—How Englishmen became Americans, 1607–1783.

Grade 5.—The United States, 1783-1877.

Grade 6.—The United States since 1877 (half year). How we are governed today (half year).

For schools that may wish to begin history later than the second grade a rearrangement of this cycle is recommended. The special syllabus for these grades, which is to accompany the final report, will develop the methodology of the subject. Detailed provision will also be made for adequate civic and moral instruction in each grade.

CYCLE III. THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 7-9)—AMERICAN HISTORY 1N ITS WORLD SETTING.

This will constitute a third unit, or cycle, designed to form a logical and psychological development of the work given in the elementary grades. A few facts of primary significance in the development of human civilization are selected and so arranged as to form a simple but connected story. Our own country is here treated as a part of the world whole, but with special empha-

sis upon our own contributions and problems. This work is designed for the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades, and is divided as follows:

Grade 7.—The world before 1607, and the beginnings of American history, including the building of the Spanish Empire in the New World, the basis of the present group of Latin-American Republics.

Grade 8.—The world, since 1607, viewed in relation to the evolution and expanding world influence of the United States. Treatment is to take account of civic problems, but to emphasize especially the economic and social features of our history up to recent times.

Grade 9.—Community and national activities. This course combines recent economic and social history with commercial geography and civics.

For those pupils of the ninth grade who expect to complete the senior high school, the committee recommends as an alternative to the above, a course in the progress of civilization from earliest times to about 1650.

CYCLE IV. SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GRADES 10-12)—THE MODERN WORLD.

This fourth unit or cycle for pupils who are about to function as active citizens on a rather high plane of political and social intelligence, will consist of the following year courses:

Grade 10.—Progress toward world democracy, 1650 to the present. This will be a study mainly of European history, but with some attention also to the rest of the non-American world.

The emphasis will be upon political movements and political reorganizations. But the explanations of these will be sought in economic changes, in inventions, discoveries, and social regroupings, as well as in the leadership of great personages and the influence of critical or constructive ideas.

Grade 11.—The above course will form the background for a study in the same spirit of United States history during the national period, with emphasis on a list of topics to be selected for special treatment, and with critical comparisons with institutions and with tendencies in other countries.

Grade 12.—Social, economic, and political principles and problems.

COMBINATION COURSES.

One of the noteworthy tendencies in the evolution of the social studies is that which leads to breaking down the traditional lines of specialization, so far as the schools are concerned, and the setting up of courses which offer combinations of elements taken from several subjects.

The committee on social studies, in its report of 1916, recommended for the work of grade 7 a combination of history, geography, and civics, as one of the alternative possibilities; and it urged throughout its report the necessity for looking upon the three years of each cycle—junior and senior high school cycles—as one cumulative of study.

The course in problems of democracy, which this committee recommended as the capstone of its curriculum, carries the subtitle "Economic, Social, Political." The basic principle of it is that the teacher will take up one public problem after another and discuss it in the

light of the best available scientific knowledge, drawing from the fields of history, economics, sociology, political science, and geography. In justification of its proposal that such a combination course be set up, the committee argues as follows (p. 53 of the report):

A justifiable opinion prevails that the principles of economics are of such fundamental importance that they should find a more definite place in high-school instruction than is customary. Courses in economics are accordingly appearing in high-school curriculums with increasing frequency. To a somewhat less degree, and with even less unanimity as to nature of content, the claims of sociology are being pressed. A practical difficulty is presented by the resulting complexity of the course of study. The advocates of none of the social sciences are willing to yield wholly to the others, nor is it justifiable from the standpoint of the pupil's social education to limit his instruction to one field of social science to the exclusion of others. The most serious difficulty, however, is that none of the social sciences, as developed and organized by the specialists, is adapted to the requirements of secondary education, and all attempts to adapt them to such requirements have been obstructed by tradition, as in the case of history.

The practice of combining subjects was not new with this committee, however. The committee of seven recommended that history and civil government be taught together in grade 12; the committee of eight recommended that civics be combined with history in grades 5 to 8, the proportion of civics gradually increasing; and the committee of five recommended that the history courses in grades 9 to 12 give adequate attention to economic, social, and political conditions. It is manifest that a trained teacher can not give adequate attention to economic conditions, for example, without shedding on them the light of such knowledge of sound economic science as he has at his command and thus teaching some economics. It is only fair to say, however, that these committees would have denied that it is wise to try to teach economics in the schools; they would have said that these recommendations bear on the selection of facts to be taught. But they at least spoke for such teaching of economics in the schools as seemed to them at that time to be possible, and the teaching of it with history and government.

Nearly all recommendations made in the past decade to guide the maker of social studies curricula provide for the combination course for grade 12 at least. While the axe of the specialist naturally appears to be ground when the detailed content of the combination course comes up for consideration, the political scientists, sociologists, historians, geographers, and economists have all directly or indirectly, through their committees, accepted the principle of a combination of subjects in grade 12 if not lower down in the schools.

Even in the lower division of the college, the tendency toward combination courses in the social studies has been felt. The bulletin of the American Association of University Professors for October, 1922, offers a list of 14 leading institutions of higher learning such as Amherst, Columbia, Dartmouth, Leland Stanford, Missouri, and Williams, where courses are offered in which the lines of specialization have been broken down. In speaking of a college course not dissimilar in purpose from the problems of democracy referred to above, the report says:

The endeavor to give the student a stimulating and intelligent interest in the main human problems of the present day is of very great importance * * *. And we believe that a course in which this is dominant should be given at the earliest practicable point in the undergraduate curriculum.

Many thoughtful educators are concerned lest the useful movement to break down the too rigid separation of subjects run to the extreme of ignoring the scientific content which the university study of the subjects can contribute to the school curriculum. They claim that the courses in current events illustrate this danger; for, they claim, a useful device which might be properly used to awaken the attention of the pupil is permitted to constitute the body of instruction. Only the future can show whether our educational system is strong enough to introduce a moderate reform without going to radical and superficial extremes. We have no facts yet which show what the results will be.

CIVICS AND THE TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT.

One of the dangers inherent in the present movement toward combination courses is the omission from them of some important element. This danger is one of the reasons why specialists oppose the progress of this movement so persistently. At least since the day of the committee of five, those who would like to see some attention given to the teaching of government have insisted that civics be kept separate from history. They say that they take this position because civics always turned out to be mere constitutional history or less when the two subjects were combined.

In some cases the pendulum has swung from the memorizing of paragraphs in the Federal Constitution to what a distinguished sociologist has called "the forensic exchange of ignorant opinion" about such matters as divorce or the trusts. Teachers who frankly say that they have never studied government and have no wish to teach it are assigned classes in community civics or problems of democracy and are told to train their pupils in the principles of good citizenship. Placed in so impossible a position, what could be more natural than for them to go back to memorizing constitutional details, if their pupils are to be examined in these; or to the "socialized" discussion of newspaper headlines if they are not to be examined by any extramural authority?

Lest this lamentation seem pessimistic beyond the facts, let authority speak for itself. The State department of public instruction recently caused a survey to be made of the schools of one of our largest cities—a city where civics has been given exceptional attention. The report on the survey says: "The weakest single spot in the social studies is the failure to deal with political organization and problems. The organization of the city and State is almost wholly neglected." This is no indictment of the particular teachers involved; it is an indictment of our educational system, for conditions are worse in most other quarters in this regard than in the city which was surveyed.

When the commission of the College Entrance Examination Board, referred to above, undertakes to say that "the study of civil government should include analysis of the Constitution of the United States—the powers, organization, and functions of the Federal Government, the relations between the States and the Federal Government, and the general nature and extent of the powers reserved to the States "—it becomes responsible for the omission of important items from the list it offers. It says that "due attention should be paid to the policy of the United States in foreign affairs, tariff, banking, civil service, trusts, conservation of natural resources, capital and labor, immigration, and other present-day problems."

But for the fact that the report specifies "policy of the United States" one might suppose that "other present-day problems" cover such items of political organization as municipal home rule, the short ballot, the consolidation of State administrative organs, city manager charters, and the like. These problems of government are far simpler and more teachable than such economic concepts as capital, labor, tariffs, and trusts; scholarly opinion on them is united and definite; even political parties differ on them so little that two New York statesmen—one an ex-governor and the other a governor—of different political parties, stumped the State together to awaken interest in them; yet they are omitted from our teaching, as anyone can learn who will examine a beginning college class in government.

HISTORY OF THE SCHOOLS.

The conservative educator is concerned lest effective teaching of history be weakened through the present tendency toward combination courses and emphasis on emotional discussion of current social problems, not to say the philosophy of the newspaper headline. He calls attention to the extremist who would substitute for the study of man's development a random reading in the background of such matters as are mentioned in the daily paper.

Ignoring the extremist who would drive real history out of the schools, attention may properly be directed here to one issue which is dividing practical educators into pretty definite camps. This issue may be expressed as follows: Is it worth while to attempt to cover the outlines of history in a one-year course? Expressed differently: Since it is likely that the average pupil can be required to take only one year of non-American history in the high school, is he likely to derive more benefit from studying the history of one period than from an effort to see man's progress from the beginning? Some historians will say that this latter statement begs the question at once, for they believe that it is impossible for the high-school pupil to be brought in one year to see man's progress from the beginning. In support of this position they recall to memory the discarded and discredited courses previously offered in general history.

The following facts seem to bear on the problem: Grade 12 seems to be destined to the study of political, economic, and social problems or some of these in some combination or arrangement. The junior high school seems to be on its way to adoption, leaving only three years in the senior high school. It is fairly certain that one year in any social-study program will be given mainly to American history. Grade 10 is left to serve as an introduction in the following arrangement: Grade 10—Non-American history; grade 11—American history chiefly; grade 12—Problems of democracy. The junior high-school course in social studies seems likely to grow up around a similar outline—grade 7 presenting a problem similar to that presented by grade 10.

H. G. Wells has given considerable stimulus to the demand that young people be exposed to the optimistic philosophy which may be derived from a study of what the evolutionist claims is man's upward progress from the brute. The new Pennsylvania program recognizes no "truncated history." Its authors would probably say that the two years of history in the senior high school must constitute one cumulative course, and that it must begin with the beginning of what we know about man in the world and end with an account of the present conditions of man. They would not recognize high-school courses, junior or senior, in "modern," "medieval" or "ancient" history.

The sociologists seem pretty well united against truncated history, insisting that the work of grade 10 be comprehensive. The second committee of eight of the American Historical Association accepts most of the foregoing argument for a two-year course in history for either high school; for the junior high school it provides that grades 7 and 8 shall cover the whole story of man, including American history, dividing the work assigned to the two grades at the year

1607; but in the senior high school it proposes that the work of grade 10 begin with 1650.

Most of the statements for and against the possibility or desirability of certain types of history courses are dogmatic. When they do not proceed from mere subjective impressions they are based on the most casual observation of teaching in different schools where conditions are so likely to be different that no scientifically trained person would claim for a moment that proof one way or the other results. What is sorely needed is some controlled tests of what can be done with each type of course in circumstances that are kept constant enough for definite judgment. If this can not be undertaken, it would seem wiser for us to give less rein to our dogmatism. It may be that one kind of history course is as good as another if it is taught by a well-trained and enthusiastic teacher; and it may well be that no history course is worth the pupil's time unless it is so taught.

THE CIVIC VIRTUES.

While the secondary schools are being organized to give currency to the scientific principles on which a desirable social order may be developed, attention is also being given to a still more fundamental condition precedent to real democratic life.

The twelve-year program for the Pennsylvania schools provides that the children in each of the six elementary grades shall be trained in such civic virtues as obedience, truthfulness, fair play, reverence, self-control, thrift, and an appreciation of the spirit of cooperation. Other cities, as widely distributed as Los Angeles, Cincinnati, and New York, have programs in which attention is given to the ethical and moral foundation on which all efforts at democratic life must stand. The most convenient statement of the present status of this effort is probably to be found in Bulletin 18, 1920, of the United States Bureau of Education, by Hannah M. Harris, of the Hyannis, Mass., State Normal School. The title of the bulletin is "Lessons in Civics for the Six Elementary Grades of City Schools."

The leaders in the movement for training in the civic virtues in the first six grades of school life organize their teaching around the idea of cooperation and the Golden Rule. With this basic spirit of fair dealing goes the effort to create a respect not only for economic effectiveness and thrift in handling one's own property, but for handling that of the community as well. Through such teaching, the way is paved for progress toward organization. It is futile to organize unless the elements united are desirable elements. If the individuals lack the ideals which make for a better life, anarchy or despotism may be better than democracy.

As the pupils develop, other efforts are being made to mold their character and to strengthen moral principles by grounding them in reason and practice.

The community, vocational, or economic civics of the junior highschool grades has in some cases left a false impression on the minds of scholarly observers. It may be that the terminology is too pretentious for what is actually done by some of the best teachers. In this period of rapidly developing vigor and independence, the pupils are encouraged to reach out into the work of the world around them for practical things. Even as early as grades 5 and 6, they are introduced to the public officials who aid in the cooperative enterprise called the community—the postman, the ashman, the street cleaner, the traffic and other service policemen. They are also made conscious of the fact that the grocer, the milkman, and the iceman are friendly fellow workers to whom certain parts of our common service have fallen. The better type of teacher makes every effort to create a constructive vision of useful cooperation, leaving for the future to reveal that scattered members of the social order betray it now and then. The mind of the child will not be made receptive to high ideals unless it is shown that the majority of the older people are living by these ideals. With still further maturity, the organized services of the city and the State, such as the water supply, are used as illustrations.

As early as seems best to the administration of the school, another method of training in the virtues of democracy and in a comprehension of its difficulties is introduced. On the principle that one may learn by doing, what is mistakenly called self-government in the school is introduced. The more thoughtful are using the expression pupil participation in school management. The pupils in the high-school grades are stimulated to look upon the interests of the school as their interests.

They are molded into citizens of a small commonwealth, but the fact is not lost sight of that they are too young to assume control. This wholesome idea of limiting authority because of the slight experience of the pupils exerts widespreading and beneficent in fluences on the minds of the growing children. Pupil participation in school administration is often misunderstood by the casual observer, who supposes that it relieves the teacher or principal of some work or responsibility. As a matter of fact, it greatly increases the problems of control just as democracy tests the character of rulers more than despotism does.

Much of this training in civic virtues is closely related to the social studies; but for much more of it the whole administration of

the school must take the responsibility. One tendency which may endanger effective teaching in the field now under consideration is to saddle the whole moral responsibility of the school upon the shoulders of one department just as the mistake has been made of saddling the whole responsibility for correct use of English upon the shoulders of the teachers of English. Civic virtues and correct English must be the concern of every teacher in the school if these basic desiderata are to be obtained.

THE OUTLOOK FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES.

It may be that the report of a committee of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, published in 1920, presented the present situation a little too darkly when it said:

At present, social topics have no proper claim to time. They are pushed aside and we are told that they will be taken care of by other subjects. What we are trying to bring about is a recognition of social studies as the major thread of studies, others finding relation to them as possible. In order to make immediate action possible we recommend that social studies other than history be given the time of one-half unit a year in each of the years from the seventh grade to the twelfth. As most educational organizers would make equal provision for history, this would mean a unit of social studies for each year of the high schools—junior and senior.

In similar vein, a commission, acting under the authority of the Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, has published a report in which is found the following hope:

The question should not be "how to put the social studies into our curriculum," but "how to organize our curriculum around social objectives." The commission believes that the social studies should be the backbone of secondary education, with which all other studies and school activities should be closely articulated according to their contribution to the social objectives of education.

One reason why the social studies have not heretofore been more effectively championed is the fact that the champions have been so divided among themselves. This handicap has been somewhat removed by the organization in 1921 of the National Council for the Social Studies, which is federal in its nature, uniting, first, the historians, political scientists, economists, sociologists, and geographers; second, the school administrators and students of methods in the social studies; and, third, the teachers. As yet the main purpose being served by this organization is to give body to the idea of unity in this field. The journal of the organization is The Historical Outlook, formerly The History Teachers Magazine, with a subscription list of over 5,000 and a dozen years of successful service behind it. The National Council is gradually drawing together

the elements which contribute to effective teaching of the social studies, giving currency through The Historical Outlook and other avenues to constructive information bearing on courses of study and methods of teaching, and stimulating the organization of local groups and State associations where cooperative attack can be made on the common problems. All of this is done with the main purpose in view of coordinating useful and forward-looking efforts wherever they are to be found.

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